

Individual Differences in Thresholds for Rotundone added to Red Wine

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6 2 **Individual Differences in Thresholds for Rotundone added to Red Wine**
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48 25 Running Title: Specific anosmia for rotundone
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52 27 Key Words: detection thresholds; specific anosmia; psychophysics; olfaction
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3 **29 Abstract**
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7 31 Rotundone is an odor-active compound found in the skin of some grape varieties that
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9 32 contributes the peppery note associated with wines such as Shiraz and Noiret. Previous
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11 33 research suggests there may be a specific anosmia for rotundone, as some individuals are
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13 34 unable to detect the presence of this compound even at high concentrations, despite having
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15 35 an otherwise normal sense of smell. However, subtle methodological differences limit the
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17 36 broader application of these results. Here, we estimate detection thresholds for rotundone
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19 37 added to red wine in a convenience sample of non-expert consumers in central
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21 38 Pennsylvania. We use a well-established standardized psychophysical method, and
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23 39 compare thresholds determined via orthonasal (n=56) and retronasal assessment (n=53).
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25 40 We found approximately 40% of our sample was anosmic to rotundone, and that ortho-and
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27 41 retronasal detection thresholds were nearly identical in a wine matrix. These results
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29 42 confirm a specific anosmia for rotundone within in a North American cohort, and suggest
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31 43 that peppery aroma experienced by sniffing a wine closely mirror the peppery flavor
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33 44 experienced when tasting the same wine. This suggests future research on rotundone
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35 45 perception may be able to rely on orthonasal assessment of samples. We also suggest
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37 46 additional work is warranted to uncover the genetic basis for this anosmia, in order to
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39 47 better evaluate potential regional differences in rotundone perception.
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48 Introduction.

49 Rotundone is a sesquiterpene with a peppery, spicy aroma. It is responsible, in part,
50 for the characteristic aroma of black pepper. Commercially, it is highly pertinent to the
51 wine industry, as it is also found in some red wines such as Australian Shiraz or
52 Pennsylvania Noiret. Rotundone was first isolated a little over a decade ago (Wood et al.,
53 2008), and subsequent work has shown rotundone is found in the skins of certain grape
54 varieties (Caputi et al., 2011), including Shiraz/Syrah (Wood et al., 2008) and Noiret
55 (Homich, Elias, Vanden Heuvel, & Centinari, 2017). The concentration of rotundone in the
56 skins of these grapes can be altered via viticulture practices (Geffroy et al., 2019, 2014;
57 Homich et al., 2017). Similarly, the amount of rotundone in wines made from these grapes
58 can be controlled via oenology practices, including how long the wines are left to ferment
59 on the skins (Caputi et al., 2011). Noiret grapes are a hybrid varietal that grows well in
60 Pennsylvania, and anecdotally, these grapes are typically used to make sweet, low-
61 rotundone wines for the local market. Conversely, in Australian Shiraz, the peppery aromas
62 provided by rotundone can be highly desirable, as wines with a strong peppery character
63 are able command premium prices in the marketplace.

64 Prior work on rotundone perception also suggests it may exhibit a *specific anosmia*
65 in some percentage of the population: based on extant data, roughly 1 in 4 or 1 in 5
66 individuals are unable to perceive this peppery aroma (Geffroy et al., 2018; Wood et al.,
67 2008). A specific anosmia is the inability to smell a single odorant, despite an otherwise
68 normal sense of smell. In humans, the sense of smell relies on approximately 350 different
69 types of olfactory receptors (Zozulya, Echeverri, & Nguyen, 2001), each of which responds
70 to a specific class of molecules (reviewed in Buck & James, 2004), and odors arise from the

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3 71 pattern of activation across these different receptors (see Silva Teixeira, Cerqueira, & Silva
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5 72 Ferreira, 2016 for a review). The specific receptors in an individual's nose, as well as the
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8 73 number of each type of receptor they express, are genetically determined, resulting in
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10 74 individual differences in odor perception across the population (Olender et al., 2012;
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12 75 Trimmer et al., 2017). That is, some individuals may lack a certain receptor type, and be
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15 76 unable to smell molecules of the specific class to which that receptor responds, while
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17 77 having an otherwise normal sense of smell. Several compounds have been identified as
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19 78 having specific anosmias in the population (e.g., Amoore, Venstrom, & Davis, 1968; Lawless,
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21 79 Antinone, Ledford, & Johnston, 1994); for a few of these (e.g., the smoky odor of guaiacol or
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23 80 the floral note of beta-ionone), a specific allele responsible for the anosmia has been
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26 81 identified (Jaeger et al., 2013; Mainland et al., 2014).

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29 82 Because rotundone was isolated relatively recently and is typically present in only a
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31 83 few wine varieties, studies examining the perception of this compound have been quite
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33 84 limited. In the first study from Australia in 2008, one quarter to one fifth of participants
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35 85 were anosmic to the compound in red wine (9 of 47) and water (12 of 49). Among the
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37 86 responders, the orthonasal detection threshold was estimated to be 8 ng/L (in water) or 16
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39 87 ng/L (in red wine), whereas anosmic individuals were unable to detect rotundone even at
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41 88 concentrations as high as 4000 ng/L (Wood et al., 2008). This specific anosmia was
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43 89 subsequently confirmed by a French study, which estimated ~31% of participants could
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45 90 not detect rotundone at 200 ng/L (i.e., a concentration well above threshold for
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47 91 responders) using both orthonasal and retronasal (in mouth) assessment (Geffroy et al.,
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49 92 2018).

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3 93 Given the popularity of Australian Shiraz wines that contain rotundone, we
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5 94 wondered whether there might be a market in Pennsylvania for wines containing moderate
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8 95 to high-rotundone concentrations. Because perception of rotundone has not been
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10 96 previously studied in a North American sample, and because the prior reports used
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12 97 different methods to estimate thresholds, here we wished 1) to determine the detection
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15 98 threshold of rotundone in red wine in a convenience sample of wine consumers in
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17 99 Pennsylvania, 2) to compare orthonasal and retronasal delivery on threshold estimates,
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20 100 and 3) to determine the percentage of our participants who would be anosmic for
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22 101 rotundone. As we were preparing rotundone dilutions for use in this study, our team noted
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24 102 that rotundone appeared to be less intense when sniffed orthonasally than when assessed
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26 103 retronasally by swishing rotundone-spiked wine in the mouth. Given the discrepancy in
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28 104 delivery method between the two prior studies (Geffroy et al., 2018; Wood et al., 2008), we
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30 105 directly compared ortho- and retronasal detection thresholds for rotundone (in red wine)
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32 106 in participants drawn from the same population.
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38 108 **Methods.**

39 109 *Overview.*

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43 110 A total of 109 participants were recruited for a single test session. Upon arrival to the
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45 111 laboratory, they were randomized to one of two conditions in a pairwise fashion: roughly
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48 112 half of participants smelled (sniffed) the wine samples but did not taste them, and the other
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50 113 half were asked to taste the samples by mouth before spitting them out. Hereafter, for
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52 114 convenience and readability, these two conditions will be referred to as the *orthonasal*
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55 115 condition and the *retronasal* condition (with the caveat that the second condition is not
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3 116 solely retronasal in nature, as taste and chemesthetic inputs are also present when tasting
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5 117 via the mouth). Also, we presented rotundone in red wine rather than water for increased
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7 118 ecological relevance; that is, this compound is typically encountered in wine, and prior
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9 119 work shows that threshold estimates differ substantially between water and wine (e.g.,
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11 120 Perry & Hayes, 2016). Within a single visit, each participant was given 5 separate triads of
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13 121 samples, for a total of 15 samples; no replicates were obtained. There was no overlap in
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15 122 participants across conditions (i.e., participants only completed orthonasal assessment or
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17 123 retronasal assessment, but not both). They provided informed consent for both the
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19 124 screener to determine eligibility and the study itself, and all procedures were approved by
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21 125 the Penn State University Institutional Review Board. Participants who visited the
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23 126 laboratory received a small cash incentive for their time. Data were collected using
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25 127 Compusense Cloud, Academic Consortium (Guelph, ONT).
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34 129 *Participants*

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36 130 Participants were recruited from an existing database of 1200+ individuals maintained by
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38 131 the Sensory Evaluation Center at Penn State. Study qualifications included the following:
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40 132 not pregnant or breastfeeding, nonsmoker, no food allergies, no history of choking or
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42 133 difficulty swallowing, no known smell or taste defect, no self-reported history of alcohol
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44 134 dependency or religious aversion to consuming alcohol. The orthonasal condition was
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46 135 completed by 56 participants (12 men, 44 women) while the retronasal condition was
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48 136 completed by 53 participants (10 men, 40 women, and 3 not reported). The modal
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50 137 respondent was female who self-reported as Caucasian, and was 25-30 years old (Table 1).
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Table 1. Age distribution of sample.

	Sample (n = 109)	Proportion
22-24	12	11.3%
25-30	36	34.0%
31-35	25	23.6%
36-40	17	16.0%
41-45	14	13.2%
46-50	0	0%
51-55	2	1.9%
Not reported	3	-

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141 *Stimuli*

142 Based on prior reports (i.e., a detection threshold of 16ng/L in red wine, and 31% of the
143 sample being unable to detect rotundone at a fixed concentration of 200ng/L in water), we
144 selected a concentration range above and below these values. Because we wanted to
145 minimize fatigue, we used 5 concentrations of rotundone: 0.2, 2, 20, 200, and 2000 ng/L.
146 Stock solutions of rotundone in ethanol (95% USP grade ethanol, Koptek, King of Prussia
147 PA) were prepared and then added to 4L jugs of a neutral, fault free red wine (Carlo Rossi
148 Burgundy, Carlo Rossi Vineyards, Modesto, CA) to create a single jug of each rotundone
149 concentration, which were used for all participants in both the orthonasal and retronasal
150 testing groups. Rotundone was kindly provided by Dr. Markus Herderich and the

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3 151 Australian Wine Research Institute (Glen Osmond, South Australia). Concentrations were
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6 152 as prepared by the research team; no attempt was made to quantify these via instrumental
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8 153 chemical analysis.

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12 155 *Psychophysical Task Completed by the Participants*

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15 156 Detection threshold estimates were determined in accordance with ASTM Method E679-04
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17 157 (“Standard Practice for Determination of Odor and Taste Thresholds By a Forced-Choice
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19 158 Ascending Concentration Series Method of Limits”). Briefly, participants completed a series
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21
22 159 of triangle tests, where every triad contained one spiked sample and two blank samples.
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24 160 The triads were presented in a fixed order so that the spiked sample increased in
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26 161 concentration across triads (to minimize adaptation and fatigue), and the order of samples
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28 162 within a triad was randomized. A break of 90-seconds was enforced between sets. Each
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30 163 sample consisted of 20 ml of wine (spike or control) in a standard ISO wine tasting glass.
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32 164 For each set (triad), participants were asked either to sniff (orthonasal) or taste
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34 165 (retronasal) the three samples in the order presented on the tray, and to identify which
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36 166 sample was the most different among the three (i.e., standard triangle test instructions).
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39 167 Participants in the retronasal condition who sampled the wine by mouth were also
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41 168 instructed to expectorate the wine after tasting. After each set, participants were asked to
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43 169 use water to cleanse their palates before the next trial. Participants received their first
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45 170 three triads on a single tray, then exchanged the tray after their third trial to receive their
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48 171 fourth and fifth triads. In total, testing took approximately 20 minutes.

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3 174 *Threshold Definition and Data Analysis*
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5 175 For the triangle test at each concentration, we recorded whether or not the participant got
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7 176 the triangle test correct. We used these data to calculate the best estimate threshold (BET)
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9 177 for each individual. To do so, we used the standard ASTM E679 decision rule, with two
10
11 178 minor modifications. Per the standard method, for most individuals, we defined their BET
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13 179 as the geometric mean of the first concentration where the participant got all subsequent
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15 180 levels correct, and the next concentration (level) down. For the two participants who were
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17 181 correct at the lowest concentration given, their threshold was calculated as the geometric
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19 182 mean of the lowest concentration given (0.2 ng/L) and the next hypothetical concentration
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21 183 down (i.e., 0.02 ng/L), again in accordance with the standard method. However, for four
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23 184 participants (of 109), an alternative decision rule was used to define their individual BET.
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25 185 Specifically, these four individuals each got three lower concentrations in a row correct
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27 186 before getting a higher concentration incorrect; because the probability of getting three in
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29 187 a row correct by chance is quite low (3.7%), we reasoned these individuals may be
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31 188 sensitive to rotundone and that the incorrect answers at higher (and nominally easier)
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33 189 concentrations were thus due to adaptation. For these four individuals, their BET was
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35 190 instead calculated as the geometric mean of the first concentration where the participant
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37 191 began the run of three correct, and the next concentration (level) down. Finally for the non-
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39 192 responders (i.e., those who got the triangle test at the highest concentration presented
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41 193 wrong, and did not have a run of three lower concentrations correct), the BET was imputed
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43 194 as the geometric mean of the top concentration (2000 ng/L) tested and the next theoretical
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45 195 concentration that would have been tested (20,000 ng/L); this value was only used for
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47 196 visualization in histograms and was not included in calculated means or any statistical
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3 197 testing. Using the individual BETs for all of the responders, we then calculated a group
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5 198 threshold estimate as a geometric mean. This was done by calculating the arithmetic mean
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8 199 of the logged BETs, and then taking antilog of this value. To formally test for differences in
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10 200 thresholds across the two conditions (orthonasal versus retronasal) in the responders, we
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12 201 used an unpaired t-test on the logs of the individual BETs.
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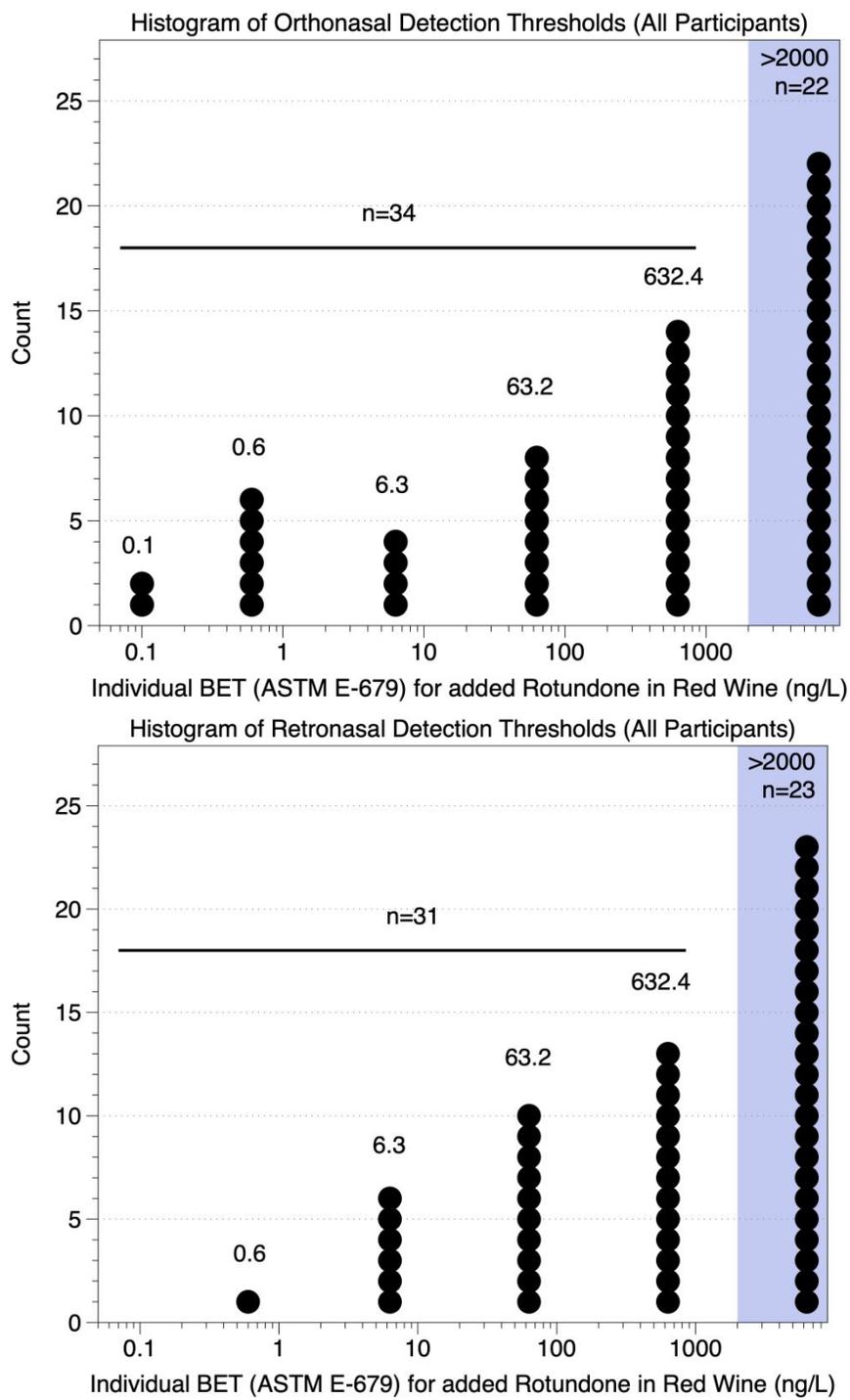
15 202 As an alternative method of analysis, we also used regression of the individual
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17 203 responses at concentration to visualize and calculate group thresholds, using the graphical
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19 204 method of Lawless (Lawless, 2010) as modified by Perry and colleagues (Perry, Byrnes,
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21 205 Heymann, & Hayes, 2019). Briefly, individual responses at each concentration were coded
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23 206 as 0 for incorrect and 1 for correct, and a regression line was fit to these points. The
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25 207 resulting line was used to determine the logged concentration where 67% performance
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27 208 was achieved by the group (i.e., halfway between perfect performance of one and chance
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29 209 performance of one third). This value was then antilogged to estimate the group threshold
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31 210 for that condition in ng/L. As discussed elsewhere (Perry et al., 2019), this approach
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33 211 provides a threshold estimate that a) is adjusted for chance, b) does not vary with
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35 212 participant number, and c) does not require specialized software.
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214 Results.

215 Across all participants, we observed substantial variation in individual thresholds (BETs),
216 as shown in Figure 1. The proportions of anosmic individuals and responders were similar
217 for both routes of odorant delivery: of 56 participants who smelled the samples, 22 were
218 anosmic (i.e., 60.7% were responders), while of 54 participants who sampled the wines by
219 mouth, 23 were anosmic (i.e., 57.4% were responders). After excluding anosmic
220 individuals, the estimated threshold for the responders (i.e., the geometric mean of the
221 individual BETs) was 36.8 ng/L (± 10.7 SD) for the orthonasal condition and 73.4 ng/L
222 (± 21.2 SD) for the retronasal condition. Critically, these values were not significantly
223 different from each other ($t_{63} = 1.01$; $p = 0.30$, on logged BETs), suggesting that route of
224 delivery does not influence the detection of rotundone.

226 From the graphical approach (Figure 2), we also see clear evidence of individuals
227 who are able to detect rotundone (top), and of individuals who are anosmic (bottom). After
228 excluding those who are unable to detect the rotundone, it again appears that the route of
229 delivery does not influence the detection of rotundone, as the estimated thresholds for both
230 conditions are very similar (139.9 versus 145.5 ng/L). From the confidence interval of the
231 graphical method, the lower and upper bounds of the orthonasal estimate were 38.9 and
232 831.8 ng/L. For the retronasal group, the lower and upper bounds of the estimate were
233 57.5 and 473.1 ng/L.

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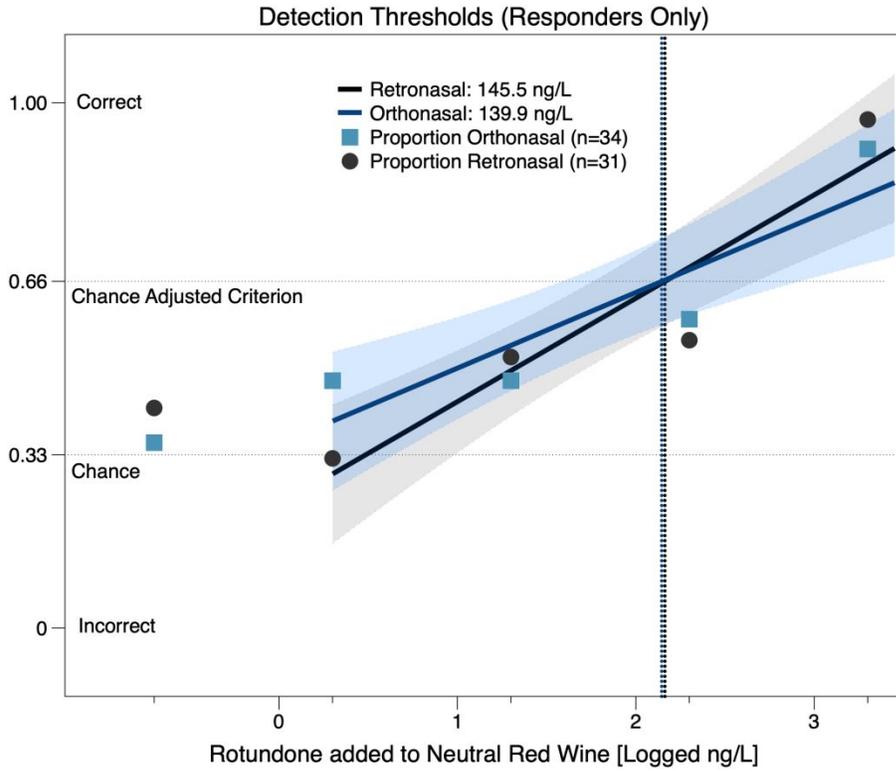
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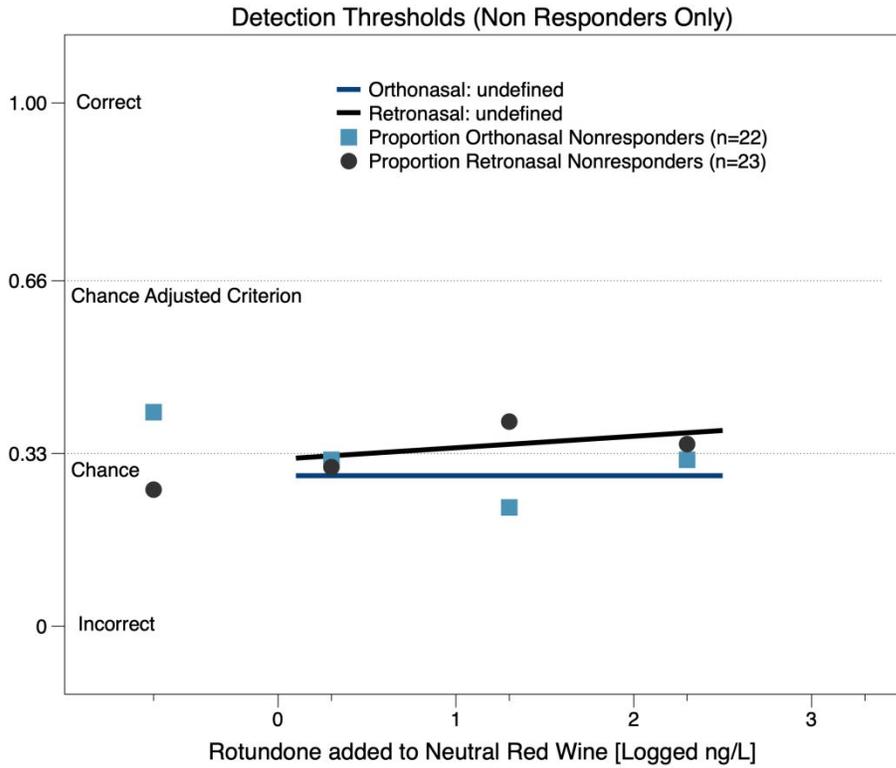
237 Figure 1: Estimated detection thresholds for rotundone in red wine assessed via the
 238 nostrils (orthonasal; top) or via mouth (retronasal; bottom).

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242 Figure 2: Estimated detection thresholds for rotundone in red wine using the graphical

243 method, for responders (top) and non-responders (bottom)

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3 **244 Discussion.**
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6 245 The main aims of this study were to determine detection thresholds for rotundone in red
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8 246 wine via both ortho- and retronasal assessment, and to use these thresholds to assess the
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10 247 percentage of participants in our sample who display a specific anosmia for rotundone.
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12 248 Using the ASTM method, the orthonasal detection threshold was 36.8 ng/L, while the
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14 249 retronasal detection threshold was 73.4 ng/L, and these values were not significantly
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16 250 different from one another. Using the graphical method, we found that detection thresholds
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18 251 were 139.9 and 145.5 ng/L for ortho-and retronasal methods respectively. Approximately
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20 252 40% of our participants were anosmic to rotundone at the highest concentration (not
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22 253 counting those who exhibited evidence of adaptation).
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27 254 Regarding the differences between the two methods for determining group
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29 255 threshold, Lawless previously suggested that the ASTM method might yield lower
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31 256 threshold values than the graphical method, particularly if some participants in the sample
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33 257 exhibited adaptation at higher concentrations, as a handful of our participants appeared to
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35 258 do. We prefer the graphical method for several reasons. First of all, it is less sensitive to
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37 259 issues of adaptation and one-off mistakes (i.e., incorrect answers) from panelists who are
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39 260 momentarily distracted (Lawless, 2010). Secondly, this method does not require hand-
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41 261 coding to determine individual BETs, which is both laborious and potentially subject to
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43 262 coding errors. Particularly for experiments with large numbers of participants and/or
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45 263 those employing many concentration levels, the graphical method has a clear advantage in
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47 264 this respect. Our threshold values using the graphical method are somewhat higher than
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49 265 the previously reported group mean orthonasal threshold of 16ng/L (Wood et al., 2008).
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51 266 Still, from the graphical method, the lower end of our confidence interval for the estimated
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3 267 orthonasal threshold was 38.9 ng/L, which is roughly similar to the values reported
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5 268 previously by Wood and colleagues.
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8 269 There was a slightly lower percentage of responders in our sample than either of the
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10 270 two previously published studies. This could be due to several factors. It is possible that
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12 271 there are simply regional variations in the distributions of responders and non-responders,
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14 272 as we used a convenience sample drawn from the northeastern United States, while Wood
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16 273 et al. (2008) conducted their study in Australia, and Geffroy et al. (2018) tested
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18 274 participants in France. However, there are also methodological considerations. The
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20 275 participants in Wood and colleagues' study (2008) were employees or students at the
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22 276 Australian Wine Research Institute (AWRI). Presumably, these individuals are more likely
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24 277 than naïve Pennsylvanian consumers to be familiar with peppery wines, given both the
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26 278 popularity of Shiraz in the Australian market and their occupational exposure to wine and
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28 279 its sensory evaluation. Other prior work suggests that exposure to an odor can lower the
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30 280 detection threshold for that odorant (reviewed in Royet, Plailly, Saive, Veyrac, & Delon-
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32 281 Martin, 2013). As such, AWRI employees may have lower thresholds for rotundone due to
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34 282 more familiarity with the compound. Additionally, of course, it is also possible that
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36 283 employment at a wine research institute may be self-selecting for individuals with greater
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38 284 olfactory expertise or interest relative to the typical consumer (see discussion in Hayes &
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40 285 Pickering 2012).
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44 286 The present study has some limitations that should be mentioned. Here. we only
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46 287 used only a single set of concentrations, and only a single threshold estimate was
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48 288 determined for each participant. Had we used an interleaved series of concentrations
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50 289 across participants, or had participants assessed more concentration levels across multiple
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3 290 days, we may have gotten a slightly better fit for the regression line in our graphical
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5 291 threshold method; similarly, additional test samples at intermediate concentrations may
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8 292 have resulted in smaller confidence intervals. Further, our sample was unbalanced in terms
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10 293 of participant gender; we did not have have any sex or gender specific hypotheses for this
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12 294 compound, so our study was not powered to assess potential differences between men and
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14 295 women. Still, given the potential for sex differences in olfactory sensitivity (e.g., (Doty &
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16 296 Cameron, 2009)), future research should potentially revisit this question. Finally, due to
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18 297 limitations on the project scope, we did not make any effort to confirm the rotundone
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20 298 concentrations via chemical analysis; that said, we have no reason to believe the
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22 299 concentrations delivered deviated from the amounts prepared by research staff. Indeed,
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24 300 given the similarity between our orthonasal threshold estimation and that of Wood et al.
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27 301 (2008), we are relatively confident that our levels were approximately correct.
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33 303 **Conclusions**

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36 304 Our data confirms previous work suggesting that there is a specific anosmia for
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38 305 rotundone, and extends it to a population not previously tested. We also found a slightly
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40 306 greater proportion of non-responders – this could be due to either regional or ethnic
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42 307 differences across populations, or methodological differences between our study and the
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44 308 two prior studies examining the perception of rotundone in red wine (Geffroy et al., 2018;
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46 309 Wood et al., 2008). Further, we found no differences between the detection thresholds for
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48 310 rotundone in red wine using orthonasal and retronasal delivery. This is particularly
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51 311 pertinent to the wine industry, as it suggests that the peppery odor obtained by sniffing a
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54 312 wine may be a good representation of how a consumer can expect that wine to taste in the
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3 313 glass. Additionally, there are clear implications for the experience of non-responders. While
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5 314 it is true that expectation strongly influences olfactory perception (Herz & Von Clef, 2001),
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8 315 unwitting rotundone-anosmic consumers who purchase a peppery wine may be
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10 316 disappointed to find that they are unable to detect a peppery flavor. Educating consumers
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12 317 about the possibility of having a specific anosmia might help to avoid this disappointment,
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15 318 which could be unfairly blamed on the vintner. Additional work is needed to see how
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17 319 disconfirmation of expectations may influence consumer satisfaction. Separately, given the
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19 320 differences in proportions of anosmic participants across the three regions tested to date
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22 321 (Australia, France, and Northeastern USA), we suggest additional research is needed to
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24 322 deduce the genetic basis for this specific anosmia, which may allow more accurate
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26 323 assessment of the incidence of rotundone nonresponders around the globe. Such
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29 324 information is both biologically interesting and commercially relevant given the rapid
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31 325 growth of wine consumption in emerging markets like India and China.
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Supplemental Table 1. Participant demographics.			
	Sample (n = 104*)	Prevalence	
How often do you consume wine?			
Never	3	2.88%	
A few times a year	15	14.42%	
Once a month	13	12.5%	
2-3 times a month	35	33.65%	
Once a week	19	18.27%	
2-3 times a week	17	16.35%	
4-6 times a week	1	0.96%	
Every day	1	0.96%	
How often do you consume beer?			
Never	10	9.61%	
A few times a year	14	13.46%	
Once a month	10	9.61%	
2-3 times a month	30	28.85%	
Once a week	21	20.19%	
2-3 times a week	15	14.42%	
4-6 times a week	4	3.85%	
Every day	0	0%	
How often do you consume liquor straight?			
Never	13	12.26%	
A few times a year	41	39.42%	
Once a month	18	17.31%	
2-3 times a month	17	16.35%	
Once a week	6	5.77%	
2-3 times a week	7	6.73%	
4-6 times a week	2	1.89%	
Every day	0	0%	
How often do you consume mixed drinks?			
Never	4	3.85%	
A few times a year	38	36.54%	
Once a month	21	20.19%	
2-3 times a month	26	25%	
Once a week	7	6.73%	
2-3 times a week	7	6.73%	
4-6 times a week	0	0%	
Every day	1	0.96%	
*5 participants did not provide this information.			

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